

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 365 784

CE 065 360

TITLE Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC, 1992-1993.

INSTITUTION Commission of the European Communities, Brussels (Belgium).

PUB DATE 93

NOTE 26p.; Published twice annually.

PUB TYPE Collected Works - Serials (022) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

JOURNAL CIT Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC; nl-3 Oct 1992-Oct 1993

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; *Employed Women; *Employment Patterns; Employment Practices; *Equal Opportunities (Jobs); Foreign Countries; *Job Development; Labor Force Development; Nontraditional Occupations; Sex Discrimination; *Sex Fairness; Womens Education

IDENTIFIERS *European Community

ABSTRACT

The information bulletins presented here are the first three issues of a biannual serial. They provide up-to-date information on key developments in women's employment position in the European Community (EC) plus some topical items of news and research from member states. Number 1 focuses on the feminization of the EC labor force that continued through the 1980s. It reports the following: women aged 20-59 are the core female labor supply; high activity rates are unrelated to rates of part-time working or unemployment; women are the "hidden labor supply" that can expect further integration into the labor market; and women's activity rates are still influenced by family responsibilities, but the effects vary among European countries. Number 2 discusses the industrial restructuring that continued throughout the EC in the 1980s. Findings are as follows: three-quarters of all female employment in the EC is in the service sector; most part-timers are women, but the extent of part-time employment varies across the EC; and unemployment has remained high and has started to rise again even after a period of rapid employment growth. Number 3 addresses occupational segregation of women and men. It reports new research that shows that major changes have accompanied the increase in female employment but these have not led to the disappearance of the division between men's and women's work. (YLB)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

ED 365 784

Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC

Nos. 1-3

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-
ment do not necessarily represent official
OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL
IN OTHER THAN PAPER COPY HAS BEEN
GRANTED BY

C. Fugan

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

CE 065 360



Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC

No. 1

October 1992

The European Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market researches into women's employment for the Equal Opportunities Unit of the Commission of the European Communities. Each year the network investigates a particular aspect of women's employment and the results are published in a synthesis report drawing on 12 individual national reports. This information bulletin is the first of a series which will be produced twice a year. The series will provide up-to-date information on key developments in women's employment position in the Community plus some topical items of news and research from the member states.

Feminisation of the EC labour force continued through the 1980s

In the 1980s women accounted for most of the increase in the labour force in the 12 EC member states. This feminisation of the labour force has occurred because women's activity rates - the proportion of women of working age who are in paid employment or who are looking for a job - continued to increase throughout the 1980s. Women's overall activity rates have risen in each country, except Ireland where the overall rate remained steady. But the rate of increase has varied for different age groups (see Figure 1).

Three trends affected changes in activity rates over this period. The first was a long-term increase in the labour force participation of women, the origin of which preceded the 1980s. At the same time, two age-related trends in activity are affecting both sexes. Young people

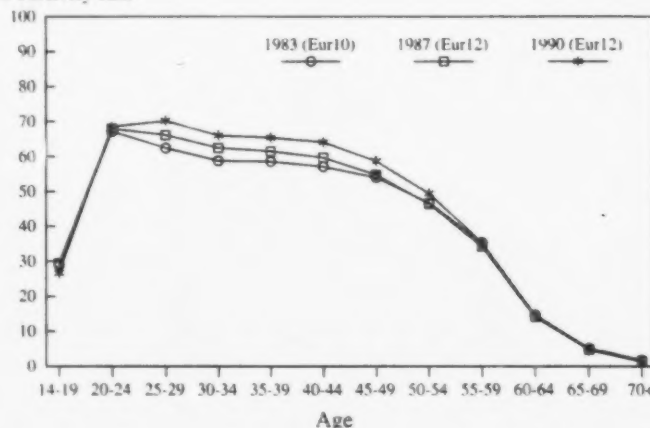
are tending to remain in education for more years than previous generations, and older people are retiring earlier. This squeeze on the labour force at both ends of the age spectrum has meant that men's activity rates have either declined or remained constant. It has also held the overall female activity

rate for Ireland constant by outweighing the growth in activity for women in the middle age-bands.

In contrast, the greatest increase in women's activity rates have occurred for women in the middle years, shown by the gap which opens up between the

1 Women's activity rates by age in the European Community, 1983 - 90

% Activity rate



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

curve for 1983 and for 1990 in Figure 1. It is in this age-group, particularly between the ages of 25 and 49, that the growth in activity rates for women has been large enough to offset the conflicting trends for young and older workers.

Women's activity rates in each country, 1990
(Activity rate (%))

Country	14 yrs +	25-49 yrs
Belgium	76	66
Denmark	61	89
Germany	48	67
Greece	25	84
Spain	32	80
France	46	74
Ireland	38	47
Italy	38	76
Luxembourg	74	83
Netherlands	43	60
Portugal	41	71
UK	82	74
EUR 12	42	65

The disparity between the picture conjured up by the overall activity rates for women of working age (14 years and above) and the activity rates of the core 25-49 year age group for women in each country in 1990 can be seen in the table above.

Denmark had the highest activity rate for women, followed by the UK, France and Portugal. Over the 1980s, the most rapid growth in activity rates for women aged 25-49 took place in Spain, the Netherlands, Greece and Ireland. In the case of Ireland this fast increase for women in this middle age range was almost exactly matched by the decline in participation among older and younger women, so the overall activity rate for women remained constant whilst significant age-related changes took place.

Women aged 20-59: The core female labour supply

By focusing upon women aged between 20 and 59 the feminisation of the labour force can be isolated from trends in education and retirement patterns. Figure 2 shows positive increases in the activity rates of the core female labour supply between 1983 and 1990 in each country in the Community, although the size of the change varied between country. The largest increase in activity rates occurred in the Netherlands, where over 12% more of the female population in the 20-59 year age group entered the labour force over the seven year period. Other high increases occurred in the UK and Germany, where 9% and 8.2% more women from this age group entered the labour force. Not surprisingly, the smallest increase occurred in Denmark, where the female activity rate for women aged 20-59 already exceeded 80% in 1983 and so proportionately fewer women remained available to be drawn into formal employment. But Belgium and France also recorded increases below the Community average, even though both have activity

rates substantially below that of Denmark.

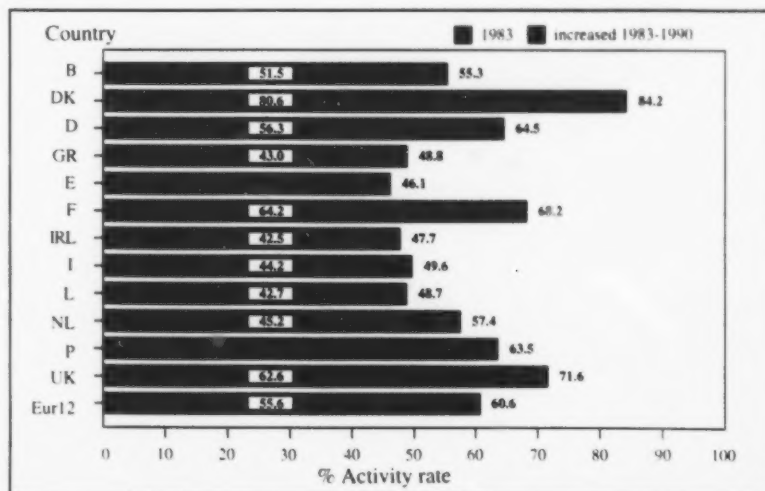
So the female labour supply in the Community has increased significantly, particularly among women aged 20-59, and is higher in some countries than in others. But the increase in the amount of activity is only part of the picture. Having focused on the quantity, we now look at the quality, or type, of activity.

High activity rates are unrelated to rates of part-time working or unemployment

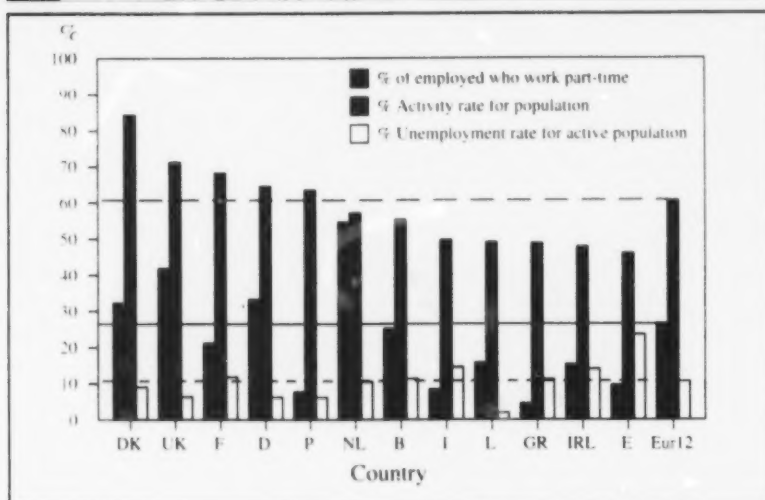
It is sometimes argued that more women will enter employment if part-time rather than full-time jobs are available. We saw that in Figure 2, the countries where the largest increase in activity rates occurred over the 1980s were the Netherlands, the UK and Germany. These three countries have a high proportion of employed women in this age group working part-time. So at a first glance this might suggest that if a high proportion of jobs are available part-time then this is conducive to high female activity rates. This is explored

2

Increase in activity rates for women aged 20 - 59, 1983 - 90



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey
Note: 1983 data is unavailable for Spain and Portugal



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey, 1990

in Figure 3 where the countries have been ranked to run from Denmark, with the highest activity rate, to Spain, with the lowest. Instead of a similar ranking for the rate of employed women who work part-time, what we see is a ragged line, showing that there is no straightforward relationship between high rates of part-time employment and high activity rates in all countries. The highest rate of part-time working is found in the Netherlands, where nearly 55% of employed women have part-time jobs. Yet Portugal has a higher activity rate than the Netherlands and one of the lowest part-time working rates, over 90% of employed women hold full-time jobs or are family workers.

Another common misconception is that the growth in female economic activity has contributed to the rise in male unemployment. But in the Community the share of the workforce that is unemployed is almost twice as high for women than for men: in 1990 the average unemployment rates were 6.6% for men and 11.2% for women, with a slightly lower rate of 5.3% for men and 9.9% for women among the 25-49 year age group. Throughout the 1980s job creation and unemployment coexisted. Yet the difficulty of finding work did not discourage women from economic activity. Figure 3 shows that female unemployment is highest in Spain,

Ireland and Italy where female activity rates are low and rising. But high unemployment rates can also occur in countries where a higher activity rate for women is well-established such as in France.

Evidently, the increase in women's activity is not simply because of the availability of part-time jobs and continues despite high unemployment rates. The feminisation of the labour market persists irrespective of the quantity or quality of jobs available.

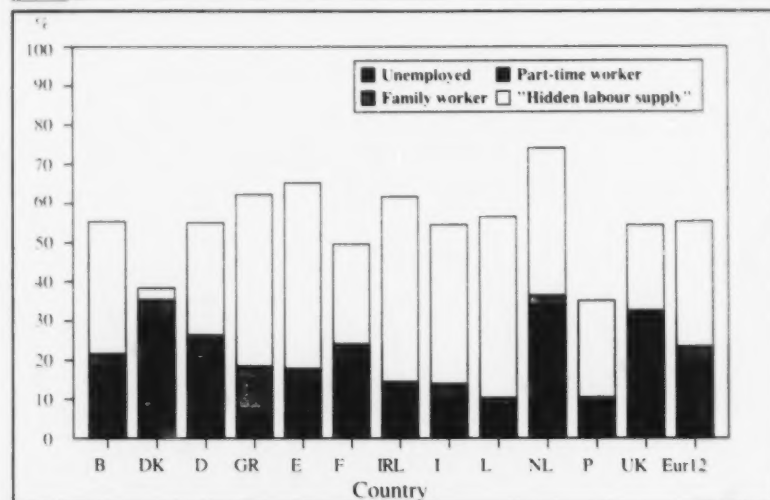
Prospects for further integration of women into the labour market: the "hidden labour supply"

Clearly women in the 1980s have systematically increased their involvement in the labour market. They are still less fully integrated into formal, paid employment than men and in the 1990s women, together with migrant labour, are still likely to provide the main new source of labour supply to the Community.

Figure 4 investigates the shape and size of the pool from which new sources of female labour supply will be drawn. These include a proportion of the "inactive" who may be considered to be a *potential hidden labour supply*. If we deduct women who state that they are unavailable for paid employment because they are students, retired, sick or disabled, then the remaining group of women would perhaps take paid employment if they had the opportunity. Some may already be engaged in paid work, such as homeworking, but these figures at least indicate a potential growth of visible female participation

4

The potential for further integration of women aged 20 - 59 into the formal labour market, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

in the formal economy. Similarly, women who are family workers might be drawn into formal paid employment and women employed part-time might be drawn into full-time employment, although it can not be assumed that these women want to change their employment status. Finally, unemployed women are, by their very presence, making an unambiguous demand for integration into paid employment.

Therefore, the potential pool for further increases in activity and full-time paid employment consists of the unemployed, part-time workers, family workers and the *hidden female labour supply*. The largest available pool is in the Netherlands, where 28% of all women in this age group are employed part-time and 38% are a potentially *hidden labour supply*. Next comes

Spain, where 11% of women are unemployed and 47% are a *hidden labour supply*. Women were more likely to be unemployed in Spain than anywhere else. The third largest available pool is in Greece, where the high level of family working is striking, 11% in contrast to only 2% of female part-timers in direct employment. Overall, part-time working is rare among women in the southern countries. Spain, Ireland, Greece and Luxembourg have the largest *hidden labour supply* of women who are not involved in the formal economy.

Despite having the highest activity rate and the lowest *hidden labour supply*, Denmark does not have the lowest potential for further integration of women, at 38%. Instead, Portugal has the lowest potential, for it has proportionately more women in full-time employment than any other

country and only 35% of women remain as a potentially new source of labour supply for the economy. But what we can expect to see in Portugal is a continued transfer of employment from agriculture into services and other expanding sectors of the economy.

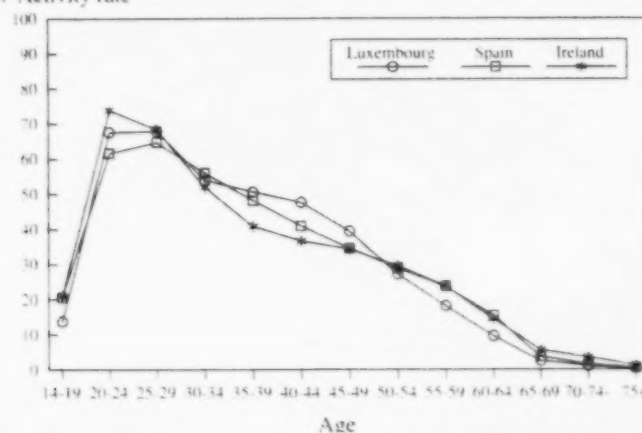
Activity rates vary for women of different ages

When we look at how activity rates vary between women of different ages, three types of curve can be identified. The first type has a left-handed peak for women aged around 20-24. In Figure 5 we have distinguished between

5 Women's Activity rates by age 1990

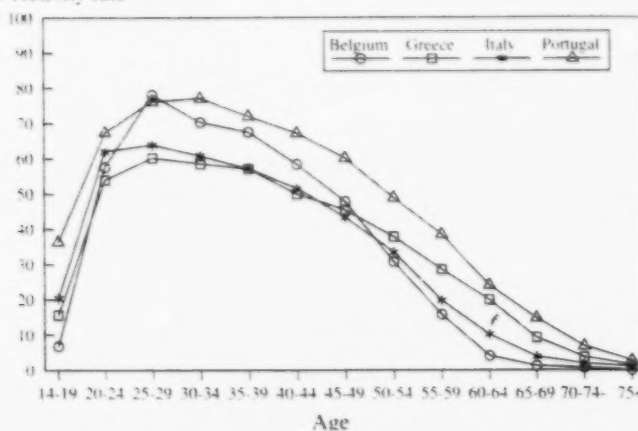
a) Sharp, left-handed peak

% Activity rate

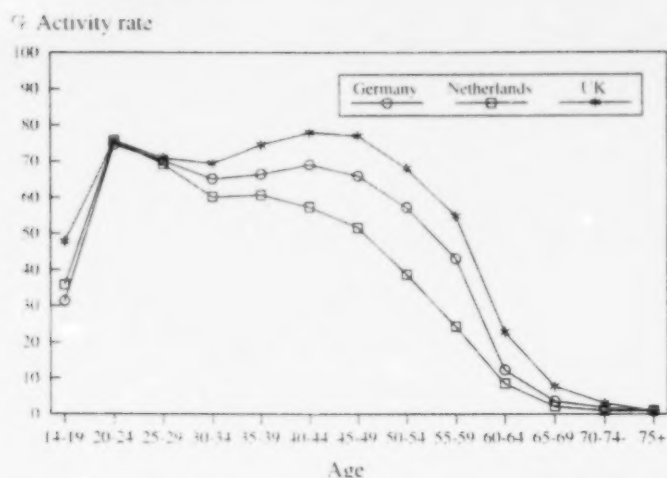


b) Gentle, left-handed peak

% Activity rate



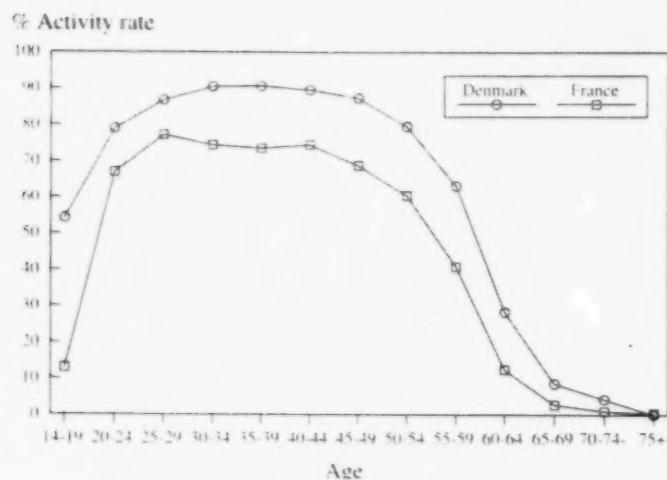
c) M-shaped activity



countries with a gentle left-handed peak and those with a sharper decline after the peak.

A sharp decline is found in societies where most women either retire permanently from paid employment upon marriage or childbirth, or they limit their subsequent paid employment to intermittent periods (Luxembourg, Spain and Ireland). It is the comparatively high activity rates for non-married women between 20 and 25 which produce the left-hand peak. A gentler curve occurs in those countries with higher activity rates (Belgium, Italy, Greece and Portugal).

d) plateau



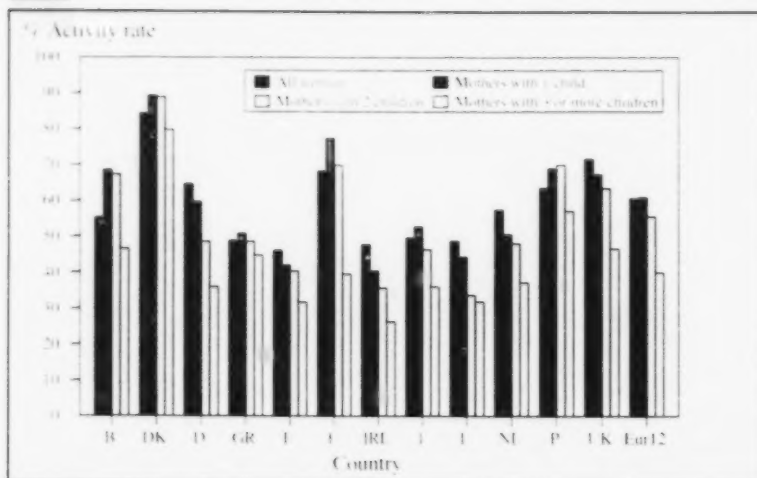
The second type of curve has two peaks, and is found in countries when it is the presence of young children rather than marriage that reduces women's activity rates (Germany, UK, Netherlands). The second peak corresponds to married women's return to work once their children are older. The trough around the thirty year age group occurs because this is the predominant age of mothers with young children.

The third type has no mid-life trough and occurs where having children does not affect women's economic activity (Denmark, France).

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

6

Activity rates of women aged 20 - 59 by number of children, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

Note: Data is only available for women who are the household head or spouse of the household head. children are defined here as aged 14 years or under

Women's activity rates are still influenced by family responsibilities: but the effects vary among European countries

Having children is no longer a barrier to activity. Mothers with one child under the age of 14 have activity rates similar to the average for all women aged 20-59 in the Community as a whole (see Figure 6). In the "gentle left-handed peak countries" (Belgium, Greece, Italy and Portugal) and the "plateau" countries (Denmark, France) the average activity rate for all women

aged 20-59 is lower than for women of this age group with one child. This apparent anomaly is perhaps explained by the "generation effect" whereby the activity rates of older generations of women, who may have had dependent children earlier in their work histories, are lower than for younger generations of women who have a greater and more continuous attachment to the labour market. Activity rates of women with three or more children still fall well below the average in the Community as a whole except in Denmark and are notably lower than the average participation rates in all the individual countries.

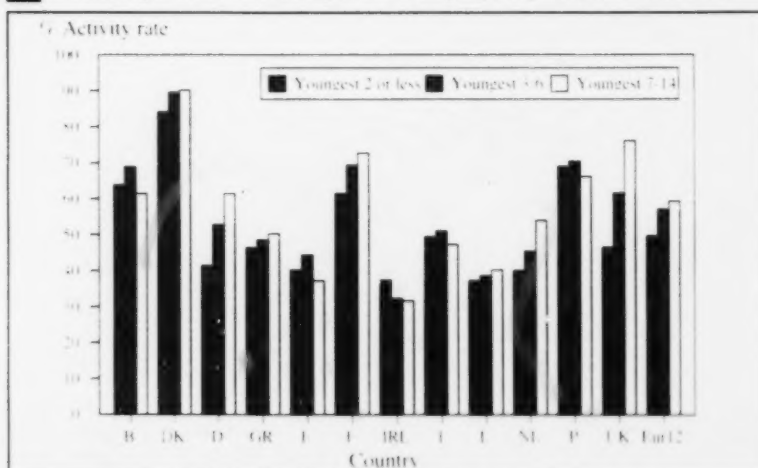
Variations in activity rates by age of youngest child also correspond closely to the different patterns of life cycle participation patterns we have already described. Those countries with an M-shaped participation pattern (UK, Germany and the Netherlands) show

the steepest rise in activity rates between mothers with a youngest child aged 2 or less and mothers with a youngest child aged between 7 and 14. France is the only other country to show a significant rise in participation rates among mothers of older children. In the remaining eight countries the participation rates of mothers are not strongly affected by the age of the youngest child, but the average rate of participation for mothers varies markedly from one country to another. The "sharp peaked" countries (Luxembourg, Spain and Ireland) all have low activity rates for women of around 40 per cent, closely followed by Greece and Italy in the "gentle peaked" category with participation rates around 50 per cent. Belgium and Portugal, the other two "gentle peaked" countries have notably higher participation rates for mothers, between 60 and 70 per cent. Portugal in fact appears to be approaching the

inverted U pattern, with the fall in participation associated with the "gentle peak" primarily only found in age ranges over 45. But Denmark, the country with the strongest inverted U pattern stands out from all the rest with a participation rate of 80 to 90 per cent even for mothers with children aged 2 or under.

The impact of children on women's activity patterns in Denmark is now limited mainly to the type of activity (whether full- or part-time work) and no longer affects the decision whether or not to participate. The question is whether all countries can be said to be converging towards the Danish model. In the meantime it is clear that while family responsibilities still influence women's participation the patterns of activity are so variable among countries that differences in women's participation from men's can not simply be explained by their role as mothers. One important factor is the variation between member states in the amount and type of child care facilities available, an issue recently addressed by the adoption of a recommendation on child care in March 1992 in order to stimulate better provision throughout the Community (92/241/EEC). But we also need a fuller picture of the differences (and similarities) between the member states in the characteristics of their labour market systems, family and social organisation, education and training systems and a host of other country-specific factors. It is only with this detail that we can understand how and why these variations in participation patterns are still found within the Community alongside the pervasive feminisation of the labour force.

7 Activity rates of women aged 20 - 59 by age of youngest child, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

Note: Data is only available for women who are the household head or spouse of the household head

RESEARCH WORK OF THE WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT NETWORK PRESENTED TO THE CONFERENCE "BUILDING EQUALITY" HELD IN LISBON IN MAY 1992 ORGANISED BY THE PORTUGUESE PRESIDENCY OF THE EUROPEAN COUNCIL

The Women and Employment network's 1991 report on "The Position of Women on the Labour Market: Trends and Developments in the Twelve Member States of the European Community 1983-1990" was presented by Professor Daniele Meulders, the author of the synthesis report and the coordinator of the network under the Second Community Action Programme on equal opportunities for women and men. Women's employment and activity rates had grown strongly throughout Europe in the 1980s accounting for most of the increase in Europe's labour supply. However alongside this evidence of greater integration of women into the labour force must be set the equally strong evidence of continued disadvantage and segregation in women's employment position. A summary of the main report has been prepared by Margaret Maruani. The summary is available in all community languages.

Women of Europe Supplements No. 36 **The Position of Women on the Labour Market** Commission of the European Communities Directorate General Audiovisual, Information, Communication, Culture. Women's Information Service Tel. 299 94 11/ 299 92 32.

CHANGES IN WOMEN'S ACTIVITY PATTERNS IN SPAIN.

Spain: New information on women's work histories shows a rapid transformation in women's labour force behaviour; in the 1950s women were still quitting the labour market permanently after marriage but by the 1980s many women in their 20s and 30s were staying in the labour market without interruption.

There have been two phases to the change in women's activity patterns in Spain. In the 1970s women in their 30s and 40s began to abandon the traditional model of low participation after marriage and started to return to the labour market. By the 1980s women in the childbearing years of 20s and 30s have begun to stay continuously in employment. Despite the transformation of activity patterns women's employment remains highly segregated; they have increased their share of service sector employment while the share of women in manufacturing has actually fallen. Women are overrepresented in many unstable sectors such as textiles but the relative growth of services, together with the greater stability of employment in the public sector where women are increasingly employed has meant that women have been less severely affected by economic recession.

L.J. Garrido Medina and L. Toharia Cortes (1991) Prospectiva de las Ocupaciones y la Formación en la España de los Noventa Informes del Instituto de Estudios y Análisis Económicos. Secretaría de Estado de Economía. Ministerio de Economía y Hacienda. Madrid.

GOVERNMENT POLICY CHANGES TO AFFECT PART-TIME WORKERS IN BELGIUM.

Belgium: Two government measures intended to limit the use of part-time jobs as a means of escaping unemployment.

Since 1982 unemployed workers in Belgium have been allowed to take part-time jobs at the same time as drawing unemployment benefit. In 1990 over 200,000 people had taken part-time jobs to avoid unemployment, 80 per cent of them women accounting for over half of all female part-time employees. Employees in this position have little incentive to move into full-time work because of the high marginal tax rates they face when they lose employment benefit. At the beginning of April, as part of a programme of budget cuts, the new Belgian government proposed two measures that indicate a shift in policy on part-time work. Employers will be obliged to pay a levy for each part-time worker they employ who has taken the job to avoid unemployment, and measures will be introduced to encourage the individuals concerned to look for full-time jobs.

INEQUALITIES IN PAID AND UNPAID WORKING-TIME IN THE UK AND THE NETHERLANDS.

Britain: hours of work of men are found to be the longest in Europe while women in Britain provide flexible and often part-time work to cover unsocial hours in the service sector.

A new representative survey of households shows that men on average work very long hours, considerably longer than women in full-time jobs and longer than anywhere else in the European Community. The UK also has the second highest share of women working part-time. Male patterns of working-time act as a major barrier to greater integration of women into jobs normally done by men. Yet women living with men working very long hours are not any more likely to work short hours; instead most women with children seem to have to fit their working patterns around school hours and the unavailability of men for before and after school child care even if this means involvement in weekend and other unsocial hours working. A related study which looked at employers' working-time policies and women's employment in fact found that women were involved in all forms of working-time arrangements including all types of unsocial hours working except for nightwork. Women often did not receive any premia for unsocial hours working. For example part-timers and even full-timers in service sectors rarely received premia for Saturday work, whereas in manufacturing where most full-timers are men, premia for Saturday working is the norm.

C Marsh (1991) Hours of Work of Women and Men in Britain, and S Horrell and J Rubery (1991) Employers' Working-Time Policies and Women's Employment, both reports in the Equal Opportunities Commission Research Series, London: HMSO

The Netherlands: The gendered division of formal and informal work.

Time budget research shows that the division of paid and unpaid work between women and men remains unequal. In absolute terms, women and men contributed almost the same number of productive (formal and informal) hours in 1988. But men provided 71% of the formal labour and women 67% of the informal labour. Men with children did not spend any more of their productive time on informal labour. In contrast for women the share of formal labour dropped from 60% to 37% as they devoted more of their time to the informal labour of raising their children. This gendered division of labour persists despite a widely expressed belief that a more equal sharing is appropriate. A 1988 survey found that 65% of people agreed that men and women should share domestic work equally, and 83% agreed that housekeeping is as much a responsibility of men as it is of women.

J.J.M. Geurts "De verdeling van formele en informele arbeid" (The division of formal and informal labour). Economisch Statistische Berichten, 19(2)

EDUCATION AND TRAINING PERPETUATE LABOUR MARKET SEGREGATION IN IRELAND AND GERMANY.

Ireland: Sex stereotyping in education persists as the underrepresentation of women in management posts in education provides a negative role model for students.

An important report on gender inequality in education published by the Irish Parliamentary Committee on Women's Rights in April 1992 highlights the perpetuation of sex stereotyping in the curricula at all levels of the educational system, but particularly at secondary level. Participation by young women in higher education is increasing at a faster rate than among young men but these female students continue to be concentrated in the Humanities. This subject bias which emerges at the secondary level restricts the employment opportunities of women and may perpetuate disadvantage even among more highly qualified women. The Committee welcomed the formal adoption of a gender equality policy by the Department of Education, but pointed to the fact that although women make up two-thirds of all teachers they still account for only a small minority of management posts in schools and higher status posts in higher level institutions. Negative role modelling of this kind is seen as potentially undermining of important attempts to foster gender equality.

Joint Oireachtas Committee on Women's Rights (1992) Gender Inequality in Education in the Republic of Ireland (1984-1991), Government Publications Office, Dublin

Germany: Occupational segregation, vertical and horizontal, is found even in vocational training and at the beginning of working life, but for some occupations vertical segregation also increases with age.

Only one year after completing their vocational training apprenticeship women already were earning 25% less than their male counterparts. Women apprentices are concentrated in low paid and highly feminised occupations but even within similar occupations earnings differences occurred. The largest differences appeared in typical male craft occupations such as baking or joinery, and in occupations requiring comparably few specialised qualifications (sales, waiting/waitressing). Young women's earnings came closer to those of male colleagues in specialised technical and qualified clerical/service occupations which are mixed and require a comparably high level of educational and vocational training. Even here women eventually lose out as vertical segregation increases later in the working life. Women receive less advanced training and are promoted less frequently. Differences in status and income increase with age even for women who followed a life-long continuous and full-time employment pattern.

G. Engelbrech (1991) Berufsausbildung, Berufseinstieg und Berufsverlauf von Frauen. Mitteilungen aus der Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung 3/1991, Nürnberg

**Activity rates for women aged 20-59 by age of youngest child and by
number of children ¹, 1990**

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR12
Number of children													
No children	49.4	81.7	67.3	42.7	34.8	68.6	49.2	41.1	45.6	56.8	54.5	77.1	60.5
1 child	68.4	89.1	59.6	50.8	42.0	77.3	40.4	52.7	44.3	50.5	68.9	67.3	60.9
2 children	67.3	88.8	48.6	48.6	40.4	69.9	35.7	46.4	33.7	48.0	69.9	63.4	55.6
3 or more	46.6	79.7	36.0	44.8	31.8	39.6	26.3	36.1	31.9	37.2	57.1	46.7	40.0
Age of youngest child													
2 yrs or less	63.9	84.2	41.5	46.5	40.2	61.5	37.4	49.5	37.3	40.0	69.0	46.5	49.7
Over 2 yrs & under 7	68.9	89.6	52.8	48.6	44.2	69.4	32.3	51.1	38.6	45.4	70.5	61.6	57.1
7 yrs & under 14	61.5	90.2	61.5	50.3	37.3	72.7	31.7	47.3	40.3	54.0	66.2	76.1	58.3
Youngest under 7	66.5	86.6	46.7	47.6	42.5	65.1	35.0	50.4	38.0	42.3	69.9	53.3	53.3
Youngest under 14	66.3	87.3	49.8	48.7	41.7	66.4	34.6	50.4	39.1	44.6	69.5	57.5	54.9
All women ²	55.3	84.2	64.5	48.8	46.1	68.2	47.7	49.6	48.7	57.4	63.5	71.6	60.6

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

Note:

1. Activity rates for mothers relate to women who are married to the household head or are the household head. Data for other mothers, such as those living with their parents, is unavailable.
2. Activity rates for all women includes women who are neither a household head nor a spouse of a household head.

Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market

Coordinator: **Jill Rubery**, School of Management, UMIST, PO Box 88, Manchester M60 1QD, UK.

National experts: **Daniele Meulders** (D.U.L.B.E.A., Belgium), **Rita Knudsen** (Denmark), **Sigrid Quack** (WZB, Germany), **Makis Cavouriaris** (L'Université de Paris VIII, France [Greece]), **Maria-Luisa Molto** (Universidad de Valencia, Spain), **Annie Gauvin** (Ministere du Travail, France), **Ursula Barry** (Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland), **Francesca Bettio** (Università di Siena, Italy), **Robert Plasman** (D.U.L.B.E.A., Belgium [Luxembourg]), **Janneke Plantenga** (Economisch Instituut, Netherlands), **Margarida Lopes** (Instituto Superior de Economica e Gestao, Portugal), **Jill Rubery** (UMIST, UK). The official who is responsible for the Network within DGV is **Els van Winckel**, Equal Opportunities Unit, DGV, Arch I 5/20 Commission of the European Communities, Rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Bruxelles, Belgium.

Acknowledgements

The leaflet was produced by Jill Rubery and Colette Fagan, the coordinating team for the network. We would like to thank the network experts for their contribution, as well as the staff of the Statistical Office of the EC, particularly Bettina Knauth, for their assistance.

This bulletin is published in English and French. The information contained in this publication does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the Commission of the European Communities.
Commission of the European Communities Directorate-general for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs.



Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC

No. 2

April 1993

The European Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market researches into women's employment for the Equal Opportunities Unit of the Commission of the European Communities. Each year the network investigates a particular aspect of women's employment and the results are published in a synthesis report drawing on 12 individual national reports. This is the second issue of the information bulletin which will be produced twice a year. The bulletin series will provide up-to-date information on key developments in women's employment position in the Community plus some topical items of news and research from the member states.

Industrial restructuring continued throughout the EC in the 1980s

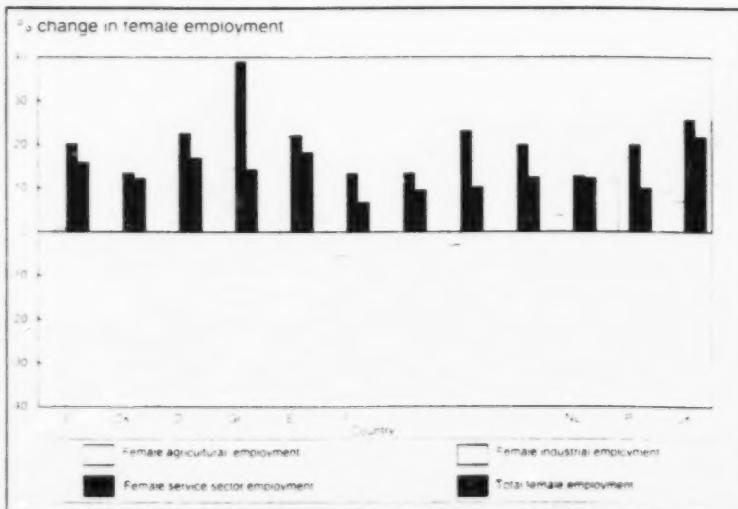
Between 1983 and 1990 (and between 1987 and 1990 for Spain, Netherlands and Portugal) the number of people in employment rose in all Member States, but the increase was particularly dramatic for women. The overall rate of employment growth for women - the percentage increase in the number of women in employment - in the Community exceeded 10%, more than double the rate of employment growth for men. The employment growth rate for women was greater than that for men in every country and in Ireland, Belgium, Italy and France male employment declined.

1983 data is unavailable for Spain and Portugal. Changes in the collection of labour market statistics in the Netherlands were introduced in 1987, making comparison between years on either side of the threshold misleading, so data for 1987-90 is used here

Most of the new jobs created over the 1980s were in the service sector. Indeed service sector employment growth outweighed total employment growth because of continued job loss in agriculture and little employment growth in industry. Part of this shift in the sectoral location of employment is

the result of organisational changes; industry increasingly contracts out business such as cleaning and computing to service sector firms instead of employing people to do such tasks inhouse. But the change also reflects a major restructuring of employment.

1 Restructuring of women's employment in the Community by broad industry sector, 1983 - 90 (1987-90 for Spain, Netherlands and Portugal)



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

This trend is part of the long term restructuring of employment in the Community, which began with a decline in the numbers of people employed in agriculture. By the 1970s restructuring also incorporated a pervasive decline in industrial employment brought about by technological change which altered the organisation and content of industrial work, and by the relocation of some employment to the newly industrialising countries where labour costs are often cheaper and plants more modern.

This wider restructuring of employment is reflected in Figure 1 which shows female employment growth by broad industry sector up to 1990: negative percent scores indicate a decline in employment while a positive score indicates growth. In every country female employment growth in the service sector exceeded total female employment growth.

At the same time, female employment in agriculture shrunk in nine countries, remained stable in Luxembourg and only increased in the UK and the Netherlands. Female agricultural employment has declined most rapidly in Germany, followed by Ireland and France. The impact of agricultural decline has had a particularly negative impact on women's employment in the Southern countries since these were the only countries to start the decade with more than 10% of the female workforce employed in agriculture.

The picture for industry is less clear cut: the highest rates of female industrial employment growth occurred in Spain, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands and Portugal. Indeed, industrial employment growth was greater or similar to service sector employment growth in Denmark, the Netherlands and Spain. In contrast female industrial employment shrunk in France and Italy and was negligible in Belgium and Luxembourg.

Three quarters of all female employment in the EC is in the service sector

This restructuring means that employment is increasingly becoming concentrated in the service sector, with a diminishing proportion of employment found in agriculture and

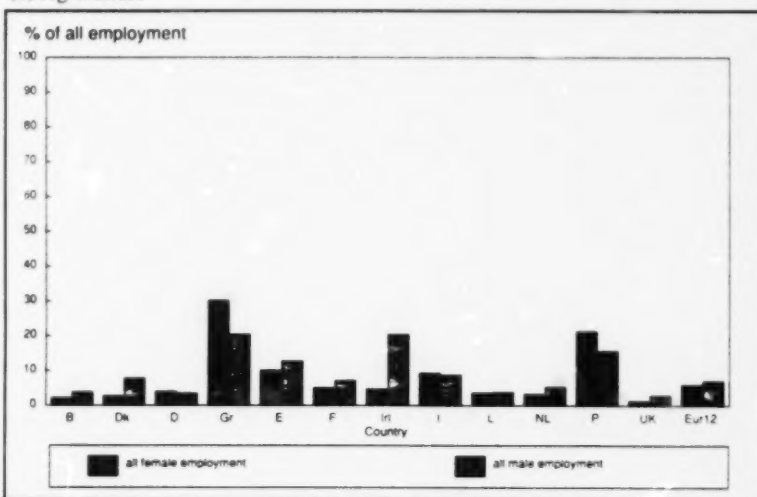
industry: a pattern which is occurring in most of the established industrialised economies of the world. Hence in 1990 over 60% of total employment in the Community was concentrated in the service sector, compared to little more than 40% at the end of the 1960s.

However, within this general pattern, some divergences are noticeable between countries in both the employment growth rates and the concentration of employment associated with different sectors.

2

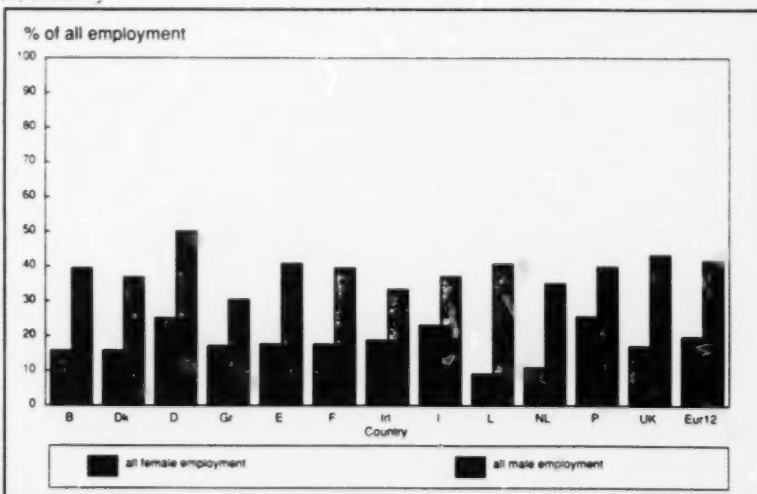
Concentration of women's and men's employment by broad sector, 1990

(a) Agriculture



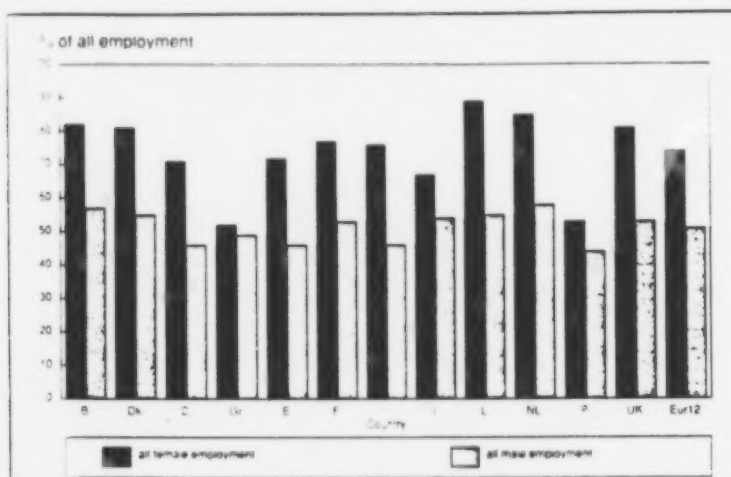
Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

(b) Industry



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

(c) Services



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey.

Figures 2a - 2c show the **concentration** of women's employment by broad sector - that is the percentage of women's employment which is located in each sector - contrasted with the concentration of men's employment. The accompanying table shows the **sex segregation** of each sector, namely the percentage of each sector's workforce which is female.

Agriculture now accounts for less than 10% of employment for both sexes in every country except Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal. Agriculture continues to be an important source of

employment in Greece and Portugal (and for men in Ireland) despite continued job loss in this sector: from 40% to 30% of women's employment in Greece between 1983-90 and from 27% to 21% in Portugal between 1987-1990. The concentration of male employment in agriculture is higher than that for women in every country except Greece, Portugal and Italy, and the disproportionate male concentration is most marked in Ireland. The female share of agriculture employment only exceeds 40% in Portugal, Greece and Germany and is lowest in Ireland at 10% (see table below).

The segregation of women by broad sector, 1990

Country	Women's % share of employment in:			All employment
	Agriculture	Industry	Services	
Belgium	26.0	19.4	46.4	37.5
Denmark	23.1	26.8	55.6	45.9
Germany	43.9	25.4	50.8	40.4
Greece	44.5	23.5	36.7	35.2
Spain	27.1	16.8	42.1	31.9
France	34.4	24.8	51.8	42.5
Ireland	10.4	21.8	45.2	33.1
Italy	35.4	24.5	39.4	34.2
Luxembourg	33.3	10.9	45.7	34.4
Netherlands	27.3	16.0	47.0	37.9
Portugal	49.7	31.8	46.6	42.1
UK	22.7	23.2	53.9	43.2
Eur12	35.3	23.6	48.4	39.2

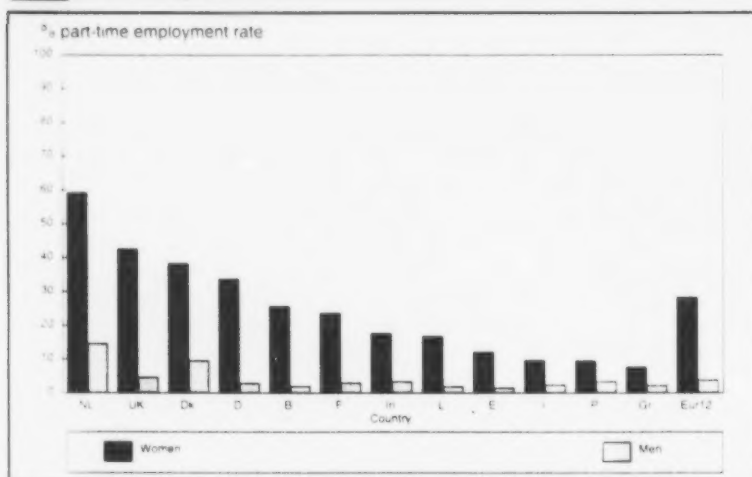
Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey.

From figure 2b, it is evident that a greater share of men's employment than women's employment is concentrated in industry. The strong industrial base in Germany is evident, with industry accounting for 50% of male employment and just over 25% of female employment. Portugal also has a comparatively high concentration of women's employment in industry, also just over 25%. At the other end of the range, the lowest concentration of male employment in industry is found in Greece at 30% and for women in Luxembourg at 9%. For both sexes and all countries (with the exception of women's employment in Greece) a higher share of employment is concentrated in industry than in agriculture. The industrial sector is highly male-dominated; only in Portugal does the female share of industrial employment exceed 30%.

Figure 2c is perhaps the most striking. More than 70% of women's employment in nine countries is concentrated in the service sector, and even in Greece, Portugal and Italy the figure exceeds 50%. More than 40% of men's employment is also concentrated in the service sector, but it fails to reach even 60% in any country. Lower levels of concentration in service sector employment for women in Greece and Portugal and for men in Germany, the Southern countries and Ireland mirror higher concentration levels in agriculture or industry. The majority of the service sector workforce is female in Denmark, Germany, France and the UK, with the lowest female share occurring in Greece, at just over a third.

So the majority of the jobs created throughout the Community in the 1980s have been in the service sector and have been taken by women. Although this employment growth has helped bring greater access to employment for women, many of these jobs are low paid and precarious involving part-time and/or temporary employment with few if any career prospects. Furthermore, by 1990 unemployment had started to rise again as employment growth slowed down.

The rate of part-time employment for all women and men in employment, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

Most part-timers are women, but the extent of part-time employment varies across the Community

The rate of part-time employment for women in the Community ranges from 59% for employed women in the Netherlands down to 8% for employed women in Greece. Female part-time employment rates exceed the Community average in the Netherlands, the UK, Denmark and Germany and are particularly low in the Southern countries (see figure 3).

In contrast, very few men work part-time. The highest proportion (15%) is found in the Netherlands. Since the Netherlands is the only country where the majority of employed women work part-time and the male part-time rate is also comparatively high it might be characterised as the member state where part-time work is closer to being the norm than anywhere else in the Community. The proportion of part-timers who are male has risen over the decade in Denmark, the Netherlands, the UK and Luxembourg; slight increases also occurred in Germany and France. Nevertheless, part-time

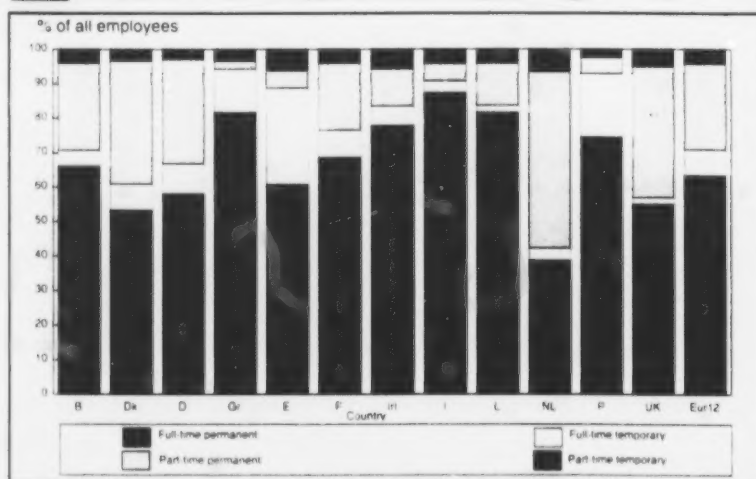
work remains a feminised employment form, for in 1990 more than two thirds of part-timers were women in every country.

Between 1983-1990 part-time employment rates rose throughout the Community, except in Denmark and Greece where they fell. However, there is no evidence of any continuing convergence in the levels of part-time working across the Community. First, in the Southern countries, the increase in part-time rates was small, for most of the jobs created in these countries continued to be full-time.

Second, the pattern of job growth for the other countries seemed to differ markedly between 1983-87 and 1987-90 with most of the increase in part-time employment occurring in the earlier period. By the latter period there appeared to be a slowing down in the growth of part-time employment rates, for in most countries the majority of jobs created were in full-time employment. The exceptions were the Netherlands and Germany which both had comparatively high rates of part-time employment for women and relatively fast rates of part-time employment growth in the late 1980s. This slow down in the expansion of part-time employment rates for most countries in the latter period suggests a levelling off in part-time rates rather than a catching-up process among countries with lower part-time rates. These national variations show that the level of part-time working is influenced by specific labour market and family-related policies and is not an inevitable feature of women's employment.

The majority of employed women (and men) in the Community are employees rather than employers, self-employed or family workers. In 1990 over 80% of women were employees in every country except Greece (52%), Portugal (70%), Spain (73%) and Italy (76%). In Greece, non-employee women were more likely to be family workers than self-employed or

The composition of employment for women employees, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

employers, but in the other three countries self-employment was more prevalent than family working.

Figure 4 shows the composition of employment for women employees in 1990. More than 50% of women employees are full-time, permanent workers in every country except the Netherlands. In contrast, over 80% of men are on full-time, permanent contracts in every country except Spain, where nearly 30% of men work in full-time, temporary jobs. The high share of employees who are in permanent, part-time employment in the Netherlands, the UK, Denmark and Germany is also evident.

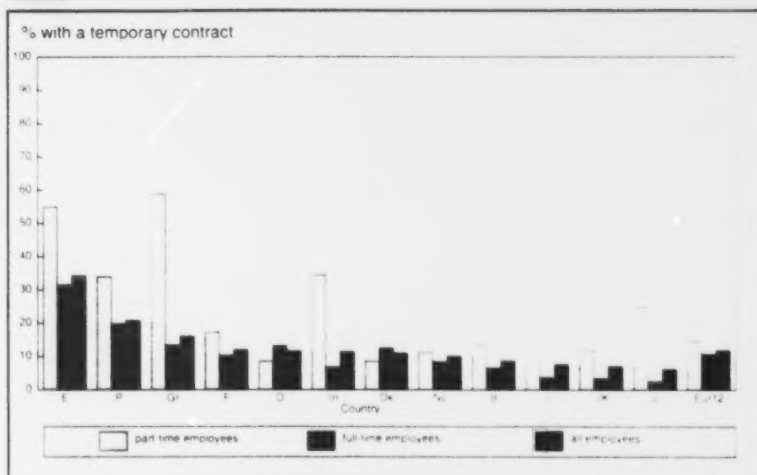
In contrast, the Southern countries make greater use of temporary full- and part-time employment rather than permanent part-time employment. Over a third of all women employees in Spain regard themselves as having temporary rather than permanent or open-ended employment contracts. The majority of these temporary jobs are full-time although Spain has more women employees on temporary, part-time contracts than any other country except the Netherlands.

Particularly high levels of temporary employment for women also occur in Greece and Portugal. The high shares of women employed on temporary contracts in these countries is mirrored by high levels of male temporary working, but the men are more likely to be on full- rather than part-time, temporary employment contracts. In addition, most male temporary workers are young. Up to the age of 24 the incidence of temporary work is similar for women and men, after this age the level of temporary working declines among men but persists among women.

Evidently, some national labour markets are characterised by a higher level of temporary working than others, partly associated with the system of labour market regulation. Figure 5 ranks the member states by the incidence of temporary contracts for all women employees. In every country more than 10% of all women employees have temporary contracts except for Italy, the UK and Luxembourg. Three of the Southern countries have the

5

The incidence of temporary contracts by employment status for women employees, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

highest share of women employed on temporary contracts, yet Italy has one of the lowest. In every country women part-timers are more vulnerable than full-timers in that they are more likely to be employed on a temporary contract, with the exception of Germany and Denmark. The greatest discrepancy between the job security of full- and part-timers occurs in the Southern countries, Ireland and Luxembourg.

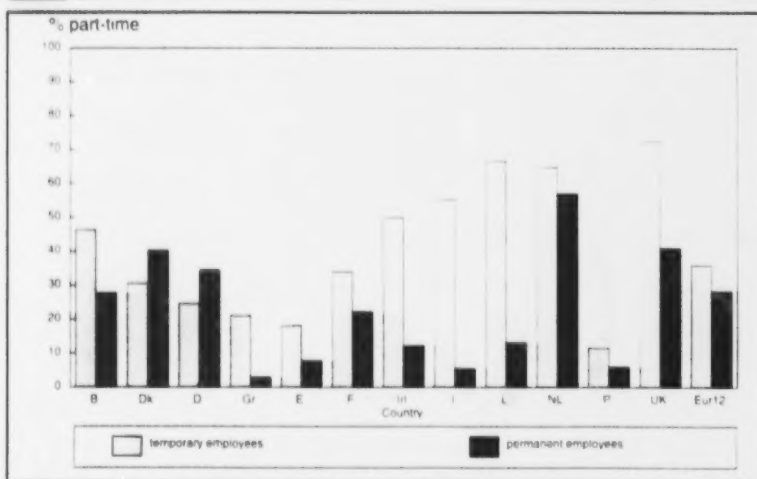
The overlap between temporary and part-time working is looked at from a different angle in figure 6, which shows the percentage of women temporary and permanent employees who have

part-time status. Obviously countries characterised by high levels of part-time employment (the Netherlands, UK, Denmark and Germany) reveal a high share of both women temporary and permanent workers employed part-time followed closely by Belgium and France. But the key issue revealed by this figure is that in every country except Denmark and Germany a higher share of temporary workers are part-time compared with permanent workers.

In sum, women are in more vulnerable employment than men throughout the Community. The extent of women's atypical and vulnerable employment

6

The share of women temporary and permanent employees who are part-time, 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

varies between countries due to different levels of part-time and temporary employment rates, and the extent to which part-time work is predominantly permanent rather than temporary. This is partly because of the different organisation and regulation of national labour markets, with for example Spain, Portugal and Greece making the greatest use of temporary employment for both sexes. Despite such national variations, one element of the picture is consistent: in every country women are in more vulnerable and atypical employment than men because of their comparatively greater concentration in part-time and temporary employment.

Unemployment has remained high and has started to rise again even after a period of rapid employment growth

Between 1985 and early 1990 the number of jobs in the Community increased at a faster rate than at any time since the 1950s. This employment growth meant that unemployment declined across the Community between 1985 and early 1990, after having risen rapidly in the early 1980s. Towards the end of 1990 unemployment had begun to rise once again as employment growth slowed.

The number of unemployed fell by much less than the number of jobs created between 1985 and 1990 because 70% of the jobs were filled by people, mostly women, who had previously been recorded as inactive. As a result, the employment rate - the ratio of the total numbers in work to the population of working-age (those aged between 15 and 64) - increased steadily in the Community over this period, after a continuous fall in the preceding decade. By 1990 the overall Community employment rate had reached 60%, but this was still substantially below levels in other comparable non-EC countries

such as the US, Japan and the rest of Western Europe where over 70% of the working-age population is employed.

So despite the substantial increase in employment at the end of the 1980s, unemployment in the Community remains high and the employment rate, particularly among women, remains below that of other comparable non-EC countries. Unemployment is more visible among men aged 25-49 and those living in industrialised/urban areas. In rural areas, or among women it often takes the form of under-employment or apparent inactivity: the "hidden labour supply". In the EC about 47% of women are recorded as inactive, compared to only 37% in the US and other non-EC European countries.

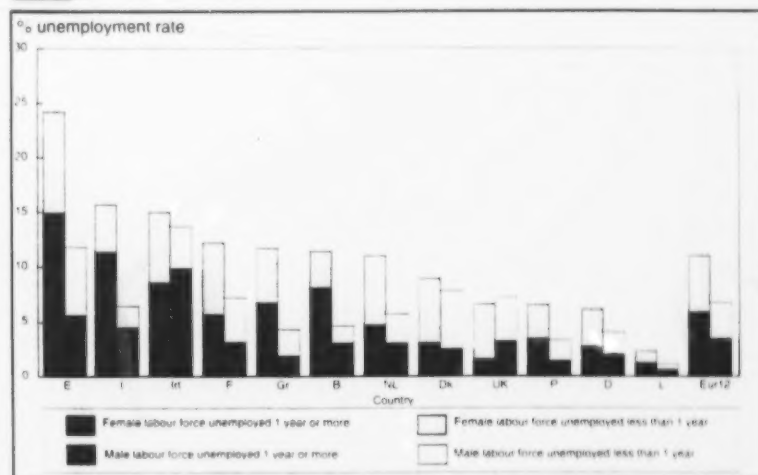
More women than men are recorded as unemployed in every country except the UK (figure 7). Unemployment is also disproportionately concentrated on young people. The disparity between unemployment rates for women and men is particularly marked in the Southern countries, but the gender gap in unemployment rates is also large in France, Belgium and the Netherlands.

A particularly serious problem is the large pool of people who have been unemployed for more than a year.

In Spain, Italy, Ireland, Greece, Belgium and Portugal the majority of unemployed women are long term unemployed. More women than men are long term unemployed in every country except Ireland and the UK. Most of the long term unemployed face additional barriers which virtually exclude them from gaining access to employment. Many live in rural or urban areas which have suffered from industrial restructuring in previous years yet where there is no compensating new employment growth and often employment shrinkage. In addition, the unemployed often lack the skills which are in demand in the labour market, and their lack of recent employment experience plus discriminatory recruitment practices further inhibit any attempt to leave the unemployment register.

Reducing long term unemployment has become a major priority for the Community's Structural Funds. The NOW initiative (New Opportunities for Women) aims to promote vocational training and employment for women, particularly those who are long term unemployed. The ERGO programme has also been established to raise awareness of the problem and to provide information about policy options and their effectiveness.

7 Unemployment rates for women and men by duration of unemployment in 1990



Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

NEGOTIATING EQUALITY AT WORK IN FRANCE

France: collective bargaining around issues of sex equality has extended some parental entitlements to men

According to a recent report submitted to the French Parliament, some collective agreements still contain discriminatory provisions for women (eg. leave of absence to care for sick children, or unpaid leave to bring up children). Overall, almost a quarter of collective agreements still includes a discriminatory clause, usually in long-established agreements in industry. The social partners seem to be paying little attention to this issue, with negotiations at inter-sectoral or industry level usually ending in reaffirmations of the general principles of equality at work, without specifying in detail how these principles are to be implemented. Paradoxically, therefore, the goal of equality at work has led to certain entitlements being extended to men. Practices at industry or firm level in this respect reflect the difficulties of replacing procedures based on the principle of protection with procedures based on that of equality of opportunity. Extending certain parental entitlements to men helps to create equality at work for women by alleviating, at least to some extent, the burden of family responsibilities which fall solely upon women. But this does not mean that indirect discrimination against women does not still exist. Programmes of positive action are needed, as are equal opportunities programmes - still too few in number - that seek to improve access for women to internal training and promotion and to offer them real career paths, access to more highly skilled jobs and a reduced wage differential between women and men.

Report to the French Parliament on the Implementation of Article 8 of the Law of 10 July 1989 on equality at work, 1992

DISCRIMINATORY PROMOTION PROSPECTS IN PORTUGAL

Portugal: recent research reveals that women are less likely to be promoted than men, even when they have similar characteristics.

Portuguese women are at least as qualified as men when formal qualification levels are considered; yet recent panel data for a sample of 1200 workers' occupational careers revealed that the probability of being promoted was only 16% for women, compared with 46% for men. Characteristics known to be associated with promotional prospects were examined to see what their impact was upon the promotional prospects for both sexes. Men's probability of being promoted was strongly increased if they had had formal education and vocational training, if they were a trade union member, employed in a large firm and were young. Youth was more important for women than men, and indeed being young had the biggest positive impact on women's promotion prospects. Being employed in a large firm was also beneficial for women. The most striking finding was that formal education and vocational training had a much lower impact upon promotion prospects than for men. This suggests that even when women are well-qualified they are less likely to be promoted than men because of discriminatory selection processes.

Grupo de Peritos (1991) "A Mulher e o Emprego" Identificação de Domínios Prioritários de Intervenção na Formação/Emprego de Mulheres. IEFP/CISEP (org.), Lisboa

EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES POLICY INITIATIVES IN GREECE AND LUXEMBOURG

Luxembourg: two initiatives from the Minister for the Family

At a conference on equal opportunities held in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg in April 1992, Fernand Boden, Minister for the Family and Solidarity announced that an interministerial working group had been set up under his chairmanship. Its aims are: to carry out a survey of the equal opportunities programmes being implemented by the various departments; to put forward a national plan for equality as part of the Third Community Action Programme on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (1991-1995); to promote equal opportunities programmes and to monitor the implementation of the 3rd Action programme at national level. Very little data on the situation of women in Luxembourg is available. The Minister for the Family has established a documentation centre to rectify this and has also commissioned a study from the Centre for the Study of Populations,

Poverty and Socio-economic Policies which will collect pertinent data. The study will cover the following topics: demography, education and employment, living conditions, health and justice, women's participation in government bodies and electoral representation.

Greece: the EC New Opportunities for Women (NOW) initiative has been warmly welcomed

In Greece 130 projects have been proposed under this initiative. Only Italy has put forward a larger number of projects, and Italy has three times the amount of available resources as Greece. Two reasons explain the particularly keen interest in this initiative in Greece. First there is a rapidly growing awareness of the difficulties faced by women, particularly in the labour market. Second, the initiative and the resources available have been widely publicised and its credibility has been enhanced by the fact that it is an international project originating in the EC. Vocational and preliminary training, guidance and advice will form a major focus of the programme for unemployed women, women in precarious employment and those women intending to set up in small firms and cooperatives.

RECONCILING WORK AND FAMILY LIFE IN DENMARK AND ITALY

Denmark: Action plan for sex equality in employment and family life

"The Relationship between Work and Family Life" project was initiated by the Equal Status Council (Ligestillingsrådet) as part of the government's action plan for equal rights in order to examine changes in the labour market and the opportunities for families to adjust and organise their daily lives. A wide range of issues make it difficult to combine employment with family life and which hinder the achievement of sex equality, such as the organization of working time, the division of domestic work and child care between women and men in the home and the organization and quality of day care centres. The project will synthesise existing evidence with new research and policy recommendations will be made concerning how to improve the circumstances of family life without jeopardizing women's position in the labour market.

Equal Status Council (Ligestillingsrådet) (1991) Annual Report

The government's 1992 "activation package" introduced a parental leave scheme which is available until 1994. Parents with children under the age of 9 can take paid parental leave for between 13 and 26 consecutive weeks, providing that an unemployed person is recruited to provide substitute cover. Parental leave can be combined with maternity leave; both parents may take leave at the same time and there is no limit to the numbers of periods of leave. Both the employee and the unemployed applicant must satisfy the conditions for obtaining unemployment benefit. The employee on parental leave receives 80% of the maximum rate of unemployment benefit from the unemployment insurance fund, and the employer may choose to top this up to the full wage during the period of leave. The substitute worker is paid the full wage.

MISEP Employment Observatory, Autumn 1992 no.39, p11

Italy: for many years working women in Italy have complained about the difficulty of combining their working schedules with the inconvenient opening hours of commercial and public services such as shops, schools, nurseries, post offices and doctors' surgeries.

Three years ago, the local government in the city of Modena, led by a female mayor, commissioned an investigation into the opening hours of services in the city and the way they fit with the needs of working women as well as other target user-groups such as pensioners. The results probably provide the most detailed 'mapping' of opening hours in the services in Italy. The final report also scrutinizes women's strategies, and the strains involved, in their attempt to fit their working schedules with that of local services, and is a useful document for policy proposals in this important area.

Comune di Modena (1990) "Le donne nella città: tempi, bisogni, servizi". Rapporto di Ricerca, vols. 1 & 2 (research and editing by the 'Cooperativa Le Nove'), Modena.

Women employees with permanent and temporary employment contracts by full- and part-time employment status, 1990

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR12
% composition of employment													
full-time permanent	66.1	53.2	58.0	81.6	60.7	68.5	77.8	87.1	81.6	38.7	74.5	55.0	63.4
full-time temporary	4.6	7.6	8.8	12.7	28.11	7.9	5.7	3.4	2.0	3.5	18.4	1.9	7.5
part-time permanent	25.3	35.8	30.4	2.4	5.1	19.4	10.8	5.1	12.2	51.2	4.7	38.0	24.9
part-time temporary	4.0	3.4	2.9	3.4	6.2	4.1	5.7	4.2	4.1	6.5	2.4	5.1	4.2
% with a temporary contract													
part-timers	13.6	8.6	8.6	59.0	55.0	17.4	34.6	45.2	25.0	11.3	34.0	11.8	14.6
full-timers	6.5	12.5	13.1	13.4	31.6	10.4	6.8	3.7	2.4	8.4	19.8	3.4	10.6
all employees	8.6	11.0	11.6	16.0	34.2	12.0	11.4	7.5	6.1	10.1	20.8	7.0	11.8
% employed part-time													
temporary employees	46.4	30.7	24.6	21.1	18.1	34.0	50.0	55.3	66.7	64.9	11.6	72.5	36.0
permanent employees	27.7	40.2	34.4	2.8	7.7	22.1	12.2	5.5	13.0	56.9	5.9	40.8	28.2

Note: The data is based upon self-classification by the employee, namely whether they consider themselves to be a full- or part-time worker and whether they consider that their contract has a fixed finishing date or is open-ended.

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey

Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market

Coordinator: **Jill Rubery**, Manchester School of Management, UMIST, P.O.Box 88, Sackville Street, Manchester M60 1QD, UK

National experts: **Daniele Meulders** (D.U.L.B.E.A., Belgium), **Rita Knudsen** (Denmark), **Friederike Maier** (Fachhochschule für Wirtschaft, Germany), **Makis Cavouriaris** (L'Université de Paris VIII, France (Greece)), **Maria-Luisa Molto** (Universidad de Valencia, Spain), **Rachel Silvera** (l'Université Paris X, France), **Ursula Barry** (Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland), **Francesca Bettio** (Università di Siena, Italy), **Robert Plasman** (D.U.L.B.E.A., Belgium [Luxembourg]), **Janneke Plantenga** (Economisch Instituut, Netherlands), **Margarida Lopes** (Instituto Superior de Economica e Gestao, Portugal), **Jill Rubery** (UMIST, UK)

The official who is responsible for the Network within DGV is Els Van Winckel, Equal Opportunities Unit, DGV, Arch II 5/20 Commission of the European Communities, Rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Bruxelles, Belgium

Acknowledgements

The leaflet was produced by Jill Rubery and Colette Fagan, the coordinating team for the network. We would like to thank the network experts, including Annie Gauvin, Sigrid Quack, Valerie Vander Stricht and Paola Villa for their contributions to the research of the network; as well as the staff of the Statistical Office of the EC, particularly Bettina Knauth, for their assistance.

This bulletin is published in English and French. The information contained in this publication does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the Commission of the European Communities.

Commission of the European Communities Directorate-general for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs.



Bulletin on Women and Employment in the EC

No. 3

October 1993

The European Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market researches into women's employment for the Equal Opportunities Unit of the Commission of the European Communities. Each year the network investigates a particular aspect of women's employment and the results are published in a synthesis report drawing on 12 individual national reports. This is the third issue of the information bulletin, which is produced twice a year. The bulletin series provides up-to-date information on key developments in women's employment in the Community plus some topical items of news and research from the member states.

Nearly half of the Community workforce is now female, but is sex equality round the corner? Adding the occupational dimension to the picture

The surge in women's participation in the European labour market over recent years (see Bulletin no.1) has finally destroyed the notion that women are a marginal or peripheral part of the labour force. Women now make up no less than 41% of all adults in the Community who are in work or looking for work. Yet has this increased integration of women into paid work ended the traditional divide between men's jobs and women's jobs? Has the growth of employment for both sexes in the service sector (see Bulletin no. 2) meant that more women and men find themselves working side by side in similar jobs? Or are jobs still divided along both vertical and horizontal lines, with women confined to the lower rungs of the ladder or separated off into jobs deemed appropriate for feminine skills and attributes?

New research by the European Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market shows that major changes have accompanied the increase in female employment but these have not led to the disappearance of the

division between men's work and women's work. Instead new contours of segregation and division are emerging between women and men. Some women have entered higher level and traditionally male job categories. At the same time the proportion of lower skilled service workers who were women continued to rise, making these job categories even more female-dominated. So trends towards desegregation in some parts of the labour market are offset by increased segregation elsewhere. The advances made by some younger and more educated women are not indicative of a more general trend towards integration and equality in employment.

The segregation of women and men into different industrial sectors is well-known. Furthermore, workers who have particularly vulnerable or low status jobs - such as part-timers, family or temporary workers - are nearly all women¹. The first European comparative analysis of harmonised occupational data from the Community Labour Force Survey has added another layer to the picture of discrimination and segregation (Rubery and Fagan 1993)². This study reveals that

¹ See previous research by the Network on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market reported in Bulletins nos. 1 and 2.

² Unfortunately no occupational data was available for Italy. References to the occupational data for the Community as a whole relate to the 11 other countries in 1990. In addition, 1983 data for Denmark, Germany, Spain and Portugal plus 1987 data for Denmark is either missing or insufficiently reliable.

occupational segregation by gender is both a pervasive and persistent feature of all European labour markets, irrespective of the rate of female participation or productivity level of the economy. We still find that half of employed women are found in clerical or service jobs, compared with less than 20% of men (see box on page 2).

The information in this Bulletin is drawn from the synthesis report produced by the Coordinating team for the Network on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market. A short summary report and the full synthesis report are available from the European Commission:

Jill Rubery and Colette Fagan (1992) **Occupational Segregation Amongst Women and Men in the European Community**. Summary produced for the Equal Opportunities Unit, V/2146/92. Available in all the Community languages from the Equal Opportunities Unit, DGV.

Jill Rubery and Colette Fagan (1993) **Occupational Segregation of Women and Men in the European Community**. Synthesis report produced for the Equal Opportunities Unit, V/5409/93. Draft available in English and French from the Equal Opportunities Unit, DGV. Final report forthcoming in *Social Europe* in English, French and German.

Most of the national reports prepared by the Experts on occupational segregation of women and men are available from the Coordinating team. A charge will be made to cover reproduction costs.

Does job creation lead to desegregation?

Over the 1980s most of the new jobs were created in the service sector - far more than in industry - and job loss in agriculture continued (see Bulletin no.2). Restructuring provides opportunities for changes in the pattern of occupational segregation. Some women have taken jobs created in expanding yet traditionally male occupational groups. But elsewhere the segregation of the sexes has remained stable or even risen. Where so-called "women's jobs" increased in number over the decade women's share of these jobs grew too, so that they ended up even more clustered in jobs with a feminine label. Where job opportunities remained stable or declined in traditional male occupations, the sex ratio changed little, if at all.

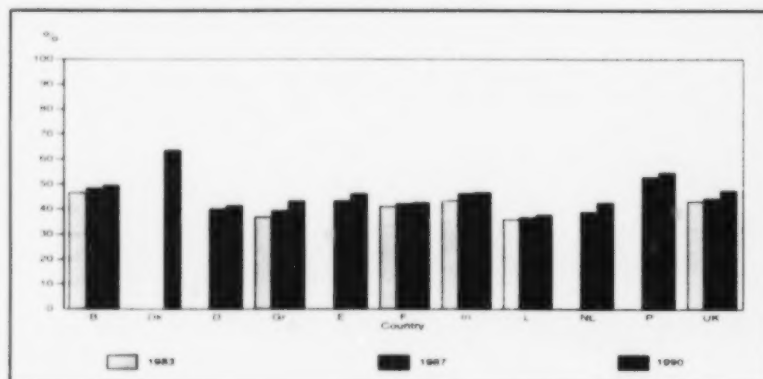
Most of the new jobs women moved into in the 1980s were in two occupational areas: professional jobs and clerical jobs (see data appendix). Job growth in service work was also important in France, Ireland, Luxembourg and Spain, but expansion in sales work was only really significant in Greece. In countries where total female employment was growing very fast (Portugal, Spain and Greece) women's employment expanded in production and related jobs as well. In contrast, women lost production jobs in France and the Benelux countries. Women's employment in agriculture fell in most countries, and only in the Netherlands did it rise very slightly.

Two trends are evidently at work. On the one hand, some women are gaining access to highly skilled professional jobs. On the other hand, many women are entering the lower level clerical and service jobs which are already feminised. Intermediate level clerical work offers better prospects than low level service jobs, but the current recession is curtailing further expansion and closing down this job avenue, at least in some countries. Evidently desegregation is not the automatic outcome of economic restructuring.

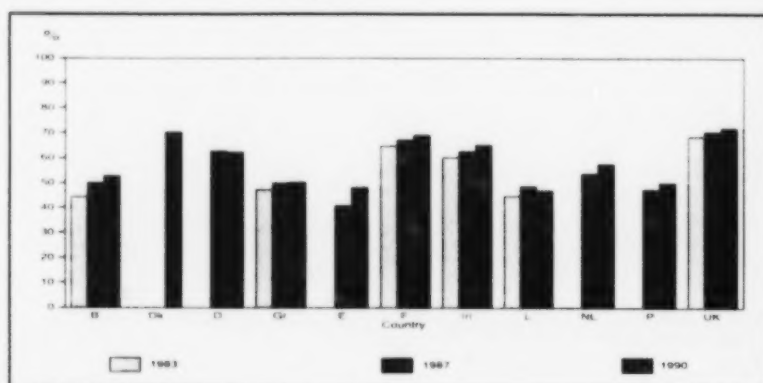
note: * = less than 0.5%
= no occupational data available for Italy

1 Change in the female share of selected major occupational groups, 1983-90

(a) Professional, technical and related occupations



(b) Clerical and related occupations

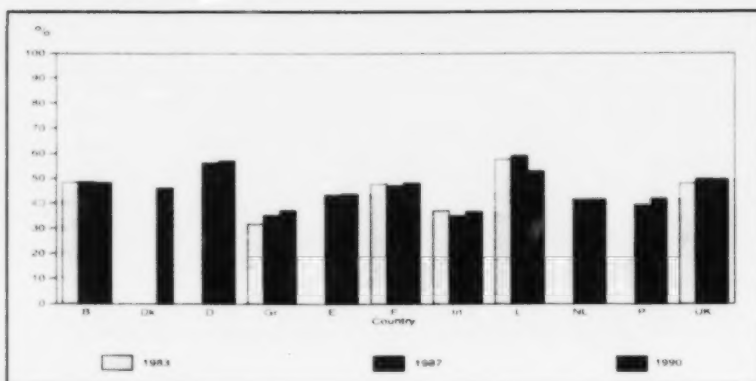


International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO 68)

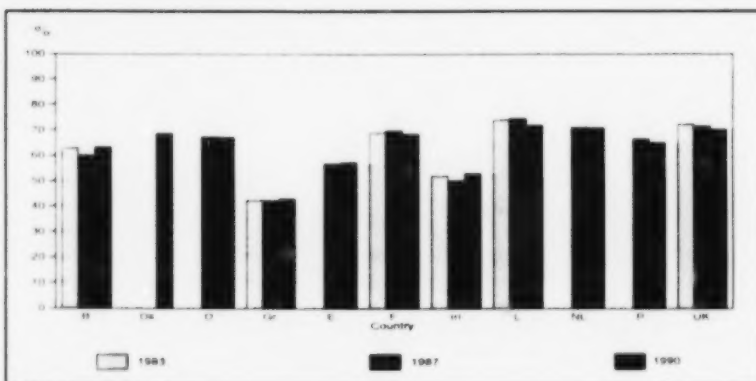
Occupational data from the European Community Labour Force Survey classified into the ISCO 68 major occupational groups can be used to provide a comparative picture of what happened to women's occupational position in the EC over the 1980s.

Major Occupational Groups	Female/male share of jobs (%)	Concentration of employment (%)	
		women (%)	men (%)
1. Professional, technical & related workers <i>Scientists, nurses, teachers, lawyers, artists, etc.</i>	45 / 55	19	16
2. Administrative and managerial workers <i>Government administrators plus managers not classified elsewhere.</i>	23 / 77	2	4
3. Clerical & related workers <i>Clerical supervisors, typists, cashiers, telephonists etc.</i>	64 / 36	30	11
4. Sales workers <i>All sales workers, including managers and working proprietors.</i>	49 / 51	12	9
5. Service workers <i>All catering and related workers including managers; personal service workers such as cleaners and hairdressers; the police.</i>	66 / 34	20	7
6. Agricultural & related workers <i>All agricultural and related workers including managers and supervisors.</i>	34 / 66	5	7
7. Production, transport, labourers & related workers <i>Manufacturing and construction workers and supervisors.</i>	16 / 84	12	45
Military	* / 100	*	1
ALL EMPLOYMENT (EC11)*	41 / 59	100	100

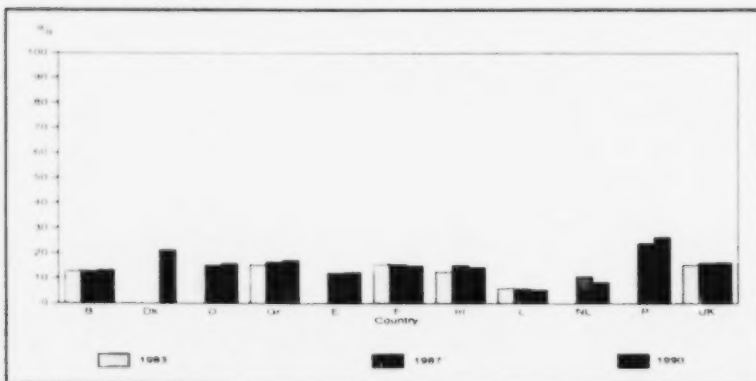
(c) Sales occupations



(d) Service occupations



(e) Production, transport and related occupations



Note: No occupational data was available for Italy. 1983 data is missing or unreliable for Germany, Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands, similarly 1983 and 1987 data for Denmark is unreliable.

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey
ISCO (68) data for Major Occupational Groups

Women made inroads into professional jobs over the 1980s in all member states

Women in all member states are obtaining qualifications to lever themselves up into professional occupations. These efforts are paying

off, for women are increasing their share of professional jobs in all countries (see figure 1a). In 1990 women held 38% of these jobs in Luxembourg, rising to 64% in Denmark. Women are just as likely to have a high share of professional jobs in countries with low overall participation rates as in countries with

high female activity, although in the more affluent countries a greater share of total employment is concentrated in professional employment.

.... but their progress is better in some professional jobs than in others

Women have increased their share of most professional jobs but they are still crowded into the caring professions and the public sector.

**Teaching
- a female profession?**

Teaching is one of the most important occupations for qualified women. In 1990 it accounted for between 5 and 12% of women's employment. The majority of teachers are female in every country except the Netherlands (see figure 2), although men dominate in the higher status university posts throughout the Community.

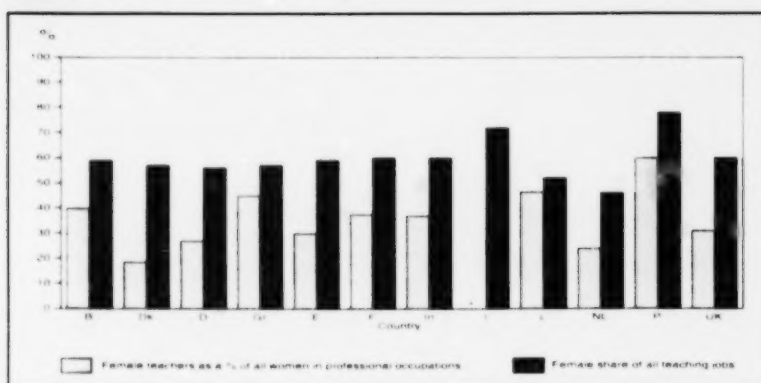
The proportion of women professionals who are teachers varies greatly. Sixty percent of women professionals in Portugal are employed as teachers, the country with the most pronounced feminisation of teaching. In contrast under 20% of women professionals in Denmark are teachers.

Pay rates for teaching seem to have quite an impact on men's involvement in teaching but this is not the case for women. In some countries falling relative pay levels coincide with women increasing their share of teaching jobs, while lower financial rewards dissuade male graduates from entering the profession. The attraction of these jobs for women cannot be explained by the working-time arrangements. These vary widely between the different countries and often where teaching hours are lowest men dominate the occupation. For example, secondary school teachers are mostly employed part-time in the Netherlands, but less than a third are women.

**Maths and computers:
men only?**

Women outnumber men in teaching; in sharp contrast less than one third of statisticians, computer professionals and related workers are women (see figure 3). The highest share (31%) is found in Greece.

The proportion of women in professional jobs who are teachers, and the female share of teaching jobs, 1990



Note: * = data unavailable. Female share of teachers in Italy provided from National Report since no occupational data was available from the Community Labour Force Survey.

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey, ISCO (68) data for Minor Occupational Group 13

Computer professionals are in a comparatively new and expanding area of work which has coincided with the increasing numbers of women obtaining high level qualifications. The occupation should be free from the baggage of tradition or the problems of employment contraction which are often used to explain the persistence of segregation within other occupational areas. But the picture for computer professionals is similar to that shown in figure 3 for the wider occupational group. The newness of this profession has not prevented it from becoming gendered.

Yet the experience is not the same in all member states. In some countries women are increasing their share of

computer professional jobs, for example in Spain and France and possibly Portugal. In other countries such as Germany, Italy, Belgium and the UK the trend is one of decline. Given these divergent trends, the explanation can not be merely that 'technology equals male'. The specific organisation of the occupation and the wider social and economic context needs to be brought into the picture.

The Public Sector: a springboard or a trap for qualified women?

A high proportion of the higher level professional and managerial jobs held by women are found in the public sector, particularly in the caring occupations associated with health, education and

social services. But detailed evidence from Germany, Spain and France show that even for the more male-dominated professions such as scientists, mathematicians and engineers the female share is higher in the public sector than in the private sector.

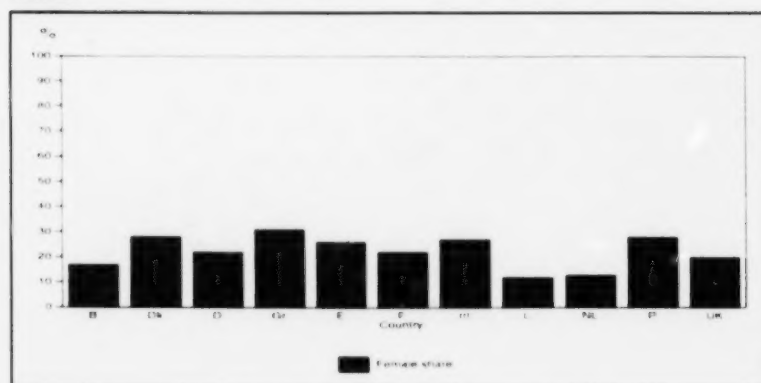
This concentration of women professionals into public sector work may be the outcome of several positive factors. Women may be more attracted to the applied nature and social value of public sector work, or to the greater job security, shorter working-time or flexible leave arrangements operating in some countries. The public sector may have been less discriminatory in its employment practices, such as through the use of open public examinations for recruitment or through the successful implementation of positive action programmes in some countries.

But a less positive factor is that women are entering the higher-level public sector jobs that may no longer be so attractive to men. In both the UK and Germany the entry of women into these jobs has coincided with falling relative pay levels for the public sector. In addition, in France and Italy women tend to be more qualified than men entering similar jobs suggesting that they have been unable or unwilling to compete with men on the terms and conditions operating in the private sector.

Clerical work: towards an exclusively female occupation?

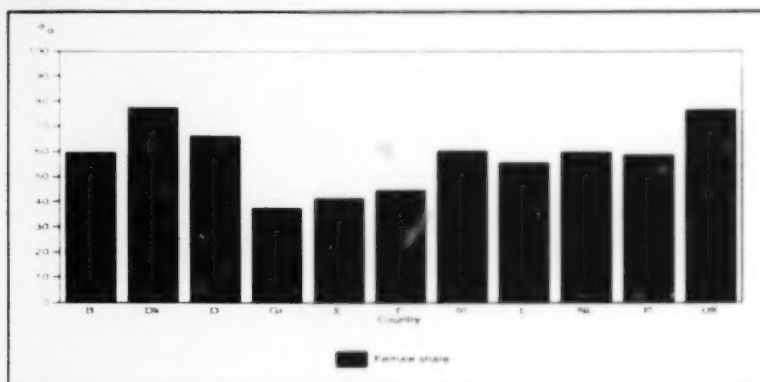
By 1990 clerical work had become a predominantly female occupation: over 60% of clerical workers in the Community were women. In all countries except Spain and Luxembourg women held over half of these jobs (see figure 1b). This represented quite a significant change from the start of the decade when most clerical workers were men in a number of the member states (for example Belgium, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg and Portugal). As female participation rates increased so did the rate of feminisation in clerical work. Spain is the most extreme case, starting with one of the lowest proportions of female

The female share of statisticians, mathematicians, systems analysts and related occupations, 1990



Note: no occupational data available for Italy.

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey, ISCO (68) data for Minor Occupational Group 08



Note: no occupational data available for Italy.

Source: Eurostat, Community Labour Force Survey
ISCO (68) data for Minor Occupational Group 53

workers and experiencing one of the fastest rates of increase. This suggests that women may soon dominate the occupation in this country as well.

Clerical work is now firmly associated with female labour in all member states. However, the extent of segregation still varies. In most countries the majority of clerical workers are now women, but in some Northern countries clerical jobs have become even more strongly associated with female employment. By 1990 women held over 70% of the clerical jobs in Denmark, France and the UK.

Are the prospects rosy for clerical workers?

The quality and amount of clerical work available continues to have an important impact on women's employment experience. Between a quarter to just over a third of employed women are clerical workers in most countries. Even in Greece, Portugal and Spain where agricultural employment remains important for women, between 16 to 20% of women workers are in clerical jobs.

Over the 1980s, clerical employment expanded rapidly in banking and finance, and the female share of these jobs also grew. Yet by the turn of the decade major employment losses were already occurring in some countries as occupational function and task divisions were being restructured to meet

changing market demands. These job losses have been further exacerbated by the current recession, but prospects for women depend on the opportunities for retraining and promotion available for clerical workers. For example, women working in clerical jobs in banking in the new Länder face particular problems for they increasingly have to compete with East German men who have been displaced as a result of restructuring in the unification process. Evidence suggests that women are facing discrimination in training and hiring practices.

Does 'Women's Work' mean service and sales jobs?

Men hold 60% of jobs in the Community. But women hold the majority of service sector jobs in every country except Greece (43%), and between 40 and 50% of sales jobs (see figures 1c and 1d). These shares have not changed markedly over the 1980s. Only in sales work in Greece have women increased their share significantly, but from a low starting point.

The uniform and high ratios of female to male workers in these types of jobs are often assumed to be a reflection of women's role as service workers in the home. Yet further investigation reveals a more complex picture.

Few men do the cooking at home, more do it when it's a paid job

Most of the catering at home is done by women, but the picture outside the home is rather different. On average 60% of cooks, waiting staff, bartenders and related catering workers in the Community are women. Yet this varies markedly between countries: from 77% in Denmark and the UK to 38% in Greece. France also has a fairly low female share of these jobs, at only 45% (see Figure 4).

The differences in female shares may be partly explained by variations in the organisation of catering work in different member states. In some, the sector is dominated by large organisations and in others it consists mainly of small family firms where men play a more dominant role. In the UK, Denmark and the Netherlands, greater use is made of part-time workers in catering than in other countries, reflecting national variations in the extent of this employment form.

A further important factor is different cultural values. The reason there are so few female cooks and chefs in France may be related to the importance attached to food and cooking in French culture. The survival of traditional craft-based cooking skills in France have helped men to retain a monopoly over this job area. Similarly, cultural attitudes concerning who should be serving in bars and restaurants affect the sex composition of these jobs. In the Southern countries these jobs are male dominated. Comparison of the UK and Ireland provides a stark example of cultural influences on who does what. The female share of waiting staff and cooks is very similar in both countries, but only a quarter of bar staff are women in Ireland compared to 70% in the UK.

Men continue to monopolise jobs in manufacturing and construction: are women excluded or are they turning their backs?

These occupations remain the preserve of men (see figure 1e). Between 35 and 48% of male employment is

concentrated into these jobs, depending on the industrial structure of the national economy (see Bulletin no.2). Not only do a lot of men work in this part of the economy, they also hold most of the jobs: 84% of production workers in the Community are male.

Women hold more than 20% of production jobs only in Portugal and Denmark. Women's share of these jobs in Portugal probably reflects the importance of the clothing and textiles manufacturing sector, one of the few female-dominated manufacturing industries. In most countries the share of production jobs held by women has remained constant or declined, even where women's employment has been expanding rapidly.

But we must not lose sight of significant pockets of women workers within these male dominated occupational groups. Like sales work, production jobs account for 12% of women's employment in the Community. In Portugal, 23% of employed women work in production jobs, and only in the Netherlands and Luxembourg does the figure fall below 10%.

Women drive but they do not hold driving jobs

It is now common for women to drive cars for domestic tasks such as shopping or taking children to school. Yet between 95 and 99% of paid driving jobs are done by men. Small, expanding clusters of women can be found, particularly in buses, trams, taxis and local, light delivery work. But why has the rate of change been so slow?

Perhaps it is because these jobs are seen as 'male' tasks with long hours and dirty work in a predominantly male culture. The tradition of strong union organisation around driving jobs, particularly within the public sector, has also tended to preserve this male culture and reserve these jobs for male employees. Recent developments such as privatisation, deregulation and equal opportunities policies have challenged this exclusion, but with little impact to date.

But the main reason may be that women are not banging on the door for entry, even on positive action training schemes. Transport is one area of employment where the male culture and the documented harassment of women is an effective deterrent. Taking on this challenge, as well as long hours, low pay and poor working conditions may just not be worth the effort.

Occupational segregation: new contours on the gender map

On first sight the dominant view is perhaps of strong similarities in patterns of segregation between the countries. Women's jobs are characterised by strong elements of caring, nurturing and supportive roles while men monopolise the 'heavy' manual, technical and managerial tasks.

Yet a closer look reveals important national differences in these broad patterns. And a further complexity cuts across the picture: that of new and emerging trends which vary according to their roots in different societies.

Women have tended to increase their share of those jobs that have expanded over the decade, mainly in the professional and clerical occupations. Women with sufficient qualifications have entered professional jobs and reduced the male majority in these jobs. This is a positive trend towards desegregation, occurring in every country and unrelated to national variations in female participation rates. At the same time segregation within the higher level occupational labour market is evident, for women have mainly congregated in the caring professions and the public sector.

Women who lack higher qualifications have tended to enter clerical work. In some countries this has resulted in clerical work being transformed from a male-dominated activity into a female one. In others this transformation had already taken place but in the 1980s the female share rose even higher.

In contrast, the sex ratio has hardly changed in occupations where job opportunities have remained stable or declined, such as male-dominated production jobs and in the more mixed sales work. The lack of job expansion provided less room for manoeuvre. And in a recession hit economy, men, particularly young men, have been competing for casual and low-level jobs. Another factor is that women may not want to put energy into entering male-dominated jobs where the poor working conditions and low pay would not compensate for the effort involved.

There is no clear relationship between national female activity rates and the sex share of the occupational groups, with the possible exception of clerical work where the female share has increased along with women's activity rates. Different and divergent patterns of segregation occur because of societal variations in the structure and organisation of occupations and the general economy. Social and cultural factors are important too. Furthermore, these patterns of segregation are dynamic, with new contours emerging as women and men manoeuvre in relation to shifting employment opportunities.

An underlying concern is the impact of segregation on the quality of women's employment. Women tend to be concentrated into female-dominated and lower-level jobs, which are poorly paid compared with most male-dominated jobs. Yet where women are entering the better paid, high-level jobs there is evidence that pay levels tend to fall as men quit for richer pickings elsewhere in the economy. To evaluate the impact of segregation on women across the Community we have to take into account the way that payment systems are organised within countries, and the gender pay gaps which result. Equal pay for work of equal value policies need to be initiated alongside positive action programmes to reduce segregation.

FITTING EMPLOYMENT AND PARENTHOOD INTO A 24 HOUR DAY IN DENMARK AND THE NETHERLANDS

Denmark: Working-time schedules increase stress levels for parents

The overlap in the working-time schedules of parents have a significant impact on their stress levels. Those experiencing the highest stress levels are parents who both work full-time in the day. These parents find the everyday tasks of shopping, delivering and collecting children to and from school, and even spending leisure time with their children to be stressful. The parents who experience the lowest stress levels are those whose working hours overlap very little, for example where one works in the day and the other works evening shifts. But these lower stress levels are purchased at the cost of the family having little social time together. Regardless of working-time patterns women experience more stress than men, and the presence of young children raises stress levels. The policy issue is whether it is better to have two stressed parents at home at the same time, or two less stressed parents at home one at a time? Or is an alternative organisation of working-time patterns desirable?

Helle Holt, Ivan Thaulow and Inge Mørkedahl (1992) "Do working-time arrangements affect stress and well-being in the family?" Danish National Institute of Social Research, Copenhagen.

Netherlands: Maintaining symmetrical careers in a dual-earner household is difficult once children arrive

It is almost impossible to live in a Dutch suburb and combine two full-time jobs with the care of children. The distance between house, work, shops and schools is too long and the travel is time-consuming. Within a large city, the 'career-kid' combination is possible, but only if the family earns a sufficient income. This research defined a 'symmetrical career oriented household' as one where both parents have a high education, live in the city and work within a sector where part-time work is unusual. When the first child is born the couple tries to maintain the double career approach, mostly by relying heavily on market-purchased services. But with the birth of the second child most of these households become asymmetrical: the husband continues his full-time career whilst the women moves to part-time work. The 'symmetrical family oriented household' - where both work part-time - is also vulnerable because financial resources are low, creating pressures to move towards an asymmetrical 'solution'. J. Droogelever Fortuijn, *Een druk bestaan* (1993) *Tijdsbesteding en ruimtegebruik van tweeverdieners met kinderen*. Amsterdam University Press.

RAPID LABOUR MARKET CHANGES IN SPAIN AND GERMANY

Spain: Women continue to enter the labour market despite high unemployment

Since the mid-1980s about half a million women have entered the labour market each year. Female activity rates continue to rise despite high unemployment: when women lose their jobs most enter unemployment rather than quit the labour market. Younger women are not copying the labour market behaviour of their mothers. For example, it is now unusual for women to quit their jobs upon marriage. And compared to young men they spend more years in education. Young women are less likely to experience unemployment before finding a job than either men of their own age or older women. But despite their greater educational experience they are more likely than men to be in lower-level, low-paid occupations in the service sector, particularly in clerical work. The coexistence of young and older groups of women who have quite different labour market experiences characterises the labour market. What happens to younger generations of women will increasingly shape both social and labour market trends.

Garrido et al. (1993) *Biografía Social de la Mujer en España*. Instituto de la Mujer, Ministerio de Asuntos Sociales, Madrid.

Germany: Unification has had a drastic impact on women's employment

The process of political, economic and social unification of Germany is having a catastrophic impact on employment opportunities. The number of employees in East Germany has fallen from 10 million to 6 million, but women have been hit harder than men for their share has fallen from 49% to 44%. Female job losses are concentrated in administrative, clerical, social and educational occupations, whilst most job offers in the regular labour market are in industrial 'male' occupations. Women are even losing out in highly feminised occupations like financial services where men are increasing their share of the jobs, particularly among new recruits. Women bear the brunt of the steadily rising unemployment - 62% of the unemployed are women - but this has not yet discouraged them from their traditionally high rates of labour force participation. However, recent cuts in job creation and training programmes plus reduced childcare facilities may force women to leave the labour market. Economic upheaval is producing increased, and unfamiliar, pressures towards individualisation and competition between workers. Not only has competition increased between women and men, but women also have to compete against each other - older versus younger, employed against unemployed, mothers against childless women.

Gerhard Engelbrech, Sabine Schenk, Petra Wagner (Hrsg.), "Bedingungen der Frauenerwerbsarbeit im deutsch-deutschen Einigungsprozeß", *Beiträge zur Arbeitsmarkts und Berufsforschung*, No. 167, Nürnberg 1993. Elke Holst, Jürgen Schupp, *Perspektiven der Erwerbsbeteiligung von Frauen im vereinten Deutschland*, Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung, Diskussionspapier No. 68, Berlin 1993. Friederike Maier, "The Labour Market for Women and Employment Perspectives in the Aftermath of German Unification", *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, Autumn 1993.

EXAMPLES OF PERSISTENT SEGREGATION IN BELGIUM AND IRELAND

Belgium: Academic career paths for women and men are segregated

A study of the labour market for both physical and social scientists has revealed a continued sexual division of labour. Female participation is growing at every educational level and girls now spend longer periods in education than men. However, only a minority of those preparing a doctorate are women. The sexes are following different career paths: men are more likely to hold full-time academic posts and have greater opportunities for permanent employment and promotion. Compared to men, women hold inferior jobs in research.

M. Allaluf, H. Hurwitz, I. Stengers "Emploi ou vocation: hypothèses relatives au marché du travail des scientifiques", *Lettre d'information du point d'appui emploi travail formation*, no. 1, 1993.

Ireland: Bottleneck in Civil Service Equality Programme.

Until 1973 a 'marriage bar' forced women to retire from the Irish Civil Service on marriage. Evaluation of the Equal Opportunity Programme introduced in 1987 reveals that the problem today is that 10,000 women are stuck in the lowest three clerical grades. The crowding of women into these female-dominated jobs represents a growing bottleneck which traps most women into the bottom layers of the occupational hierarchy throughout their working lives. Without a programme of grade restructuring to weaken the bottleneck other equality initiatives are unlikely to succeed. In the higher-level administrative and professional jobs equality policies have had more of an impact. Between 1987 and 1991 the percentage of jobs held by women rose from 1% to 4% in the assistant secretary grade and from 5% to 10% in the executive officer grade. This duality within the female civil service workforce reflects a wider labour market pattern: most women are low-paid and a minority are in relatively well paid jobs although not yet on an equal basis with their male counterparts.

Evelyn Mahon (1993) *Report on Equal Opportunities in the Civil Service*. Government Publications Office, Dublin.

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT GROWTH: OCCUPATIONAL BREAKDOWN

		Occupational breakdown: ISCO Major Groups %						
	Total employment growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1983-90								
B	15.8	8.2	0.5	6.3	0.1	0.9	-0.2	-0.2
Gr	13.3	6.2	-0.3	4.5	-4.2	2.0	-5.5	2.0
F	8.2	2.9	-0.1	4.7	1.1	2.6	-1.9	-1.3
IRL	9.9	4.7	0.6	1.4	1.1	3.3	-2.5	1.2
L	14.9	3.4	0.3	10.0	-0.9	4.1	-0.8	-1.0
UK	16.9	4.7	2.0	6.7	1.6	1.7	0.0	0.3
1987-90								
B	9.4	3.8	0.3	2.8	0.3	1.7	0.0	0.5
D	6.7	2.7	0.2	2.8	0.9	0.6	-1.1	1.0
GR	6.2	3.1	-0.3	2.6	2.1	0.6	-3.2	1.2
E	18.2	4.5	0.3	7.5	1.4	3.0	-0.7	2.2
F	4.7	1.0	-0.1	3.2	1.2	0.6	-1.0	-0.3
IRL	7.4	2.0	0.1	2.3	0.8	1.6	0.2	0.3
L	1.1	0.8	-0.2	2.9	0.0	-2.2	0.4	-0.7
NL	2.9	3.8	0.1	1.0	0.8	-0.2	0.1	-2.5
P	10.0	3.4	0.7	2.8	1.2	2.0	-3.9	3.8
UK	5.4	1.8	0.7	2.8	0.5	0.1	-0.2	-0.3

Note: The increase in total female employment over the periods 1983-90 and 1987-90 is expressed as a percentage of total female employment in 1983 and 1987 respectively. The sum of the employment growth in each of the occupational groups equals the total female employment growth for each country.

Source: Rubery and Fagan 1993, appendix table 2.

Network of Experts on the Situation of Women in the Labour Market

Coordinator: **Jill Rubery**, Manchester School of Management, UMIST, P.O.Box 88, Sackville Street, Manchester M60 1QD, UK

National experts: **Daniële Meulders** (l'Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium), **Rita Knudsen** (Denmark), **Friederike Maier** (Fachhochschule für Wirtschaft, Berlin, Germany), **Makis Cavouriaris** (L'Université de Paris VIII, France [Greece]), **María-Luisa Moltó** (Universidad de Valencia, Spain), **Rachel Silvera** (l'Université Paris X, France), **Ursula Barry** (Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland), **Francesca Bettio** (Università di Siena, Italy), **Robert Plasman** (l'Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium [Luxembourg]), **Janneke Plantenga** (University of Utrecht, Netherlands), **Margarida Lopes** (l'Université Technique de Lisbonne, Portugal), **Jill Rubery** (UMIST, UK)

The official who is responsible for the Network within DGV is **Els van Winckel**, Equal Oportunities Unit, DGV, RP 11 5/20 Commission of the European Communities, Rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Bruxelles, Belgium

Acknowledgements

The bulletin was produced by Jill Rubery and Colette Fagan, the coordinating team for the network. We would like to thank the network experts, including Annie Gauvin, Sigrid Quack and Paola Villa for their contributions to the research of the network. Other collaborators on the national occupational segregation reports were Valérie Vander Stricht (Belgium); Karsten Schuldt, Georgia Fuhrmann and Brigitte Strunk (Germany); Christine Granie (France); Brigitte van der Burg and Susan van Velzen (Netherlands); Jane Humphries (UK). We would like to thank the staff of the Statistical Office of the EC, particularly Bettina Knauth, for their assistance.

This bulletin is published in English and French. The information contained in this publication does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the Commission of the European Communities.

Commission of the European Communities Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs.